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ABSTRACT

A review of relevant available literature divides the functions of rural principals into six categories (instruction/curriculum leadership, personnel guidance, school/community relations, administrative responsibilities, evaluation, professional improvement) and provides suggestions on helpful material for each. Recent research on principals and efforts concentrating on rural schools are briefly described. The section on instructional/curriculum leadership cites four perspectives on the topic, discusses the status quo and solutions, lists helpful books, and describes material for rural programs for students with special needs (gifted/talented, bilingual/non-English speaking, migrant/racial minority students; early childhood education; special education). Under personnel guidance, staff consideration (development, inservice training) and student consideration (career materials, discipline) are covered. The school/community relations chapter considers political skills, problems and dilemmas, community ownership of schools, and rapid growth. An evaluation section describes literature on evaluating student progress and effectiveness of programs. Under administrative responsibilities (primarily coordination) general handbooks for principals and some works on topics of importance to rural principals (rapid growth, declining enrollments, time/resource management, service agencies) are evaluated. The professional improvement section covers organizations, journals, inservice education, and other materials of interest. A major conclusion is that material specifically intended for rural principals is very scarce. (MH)

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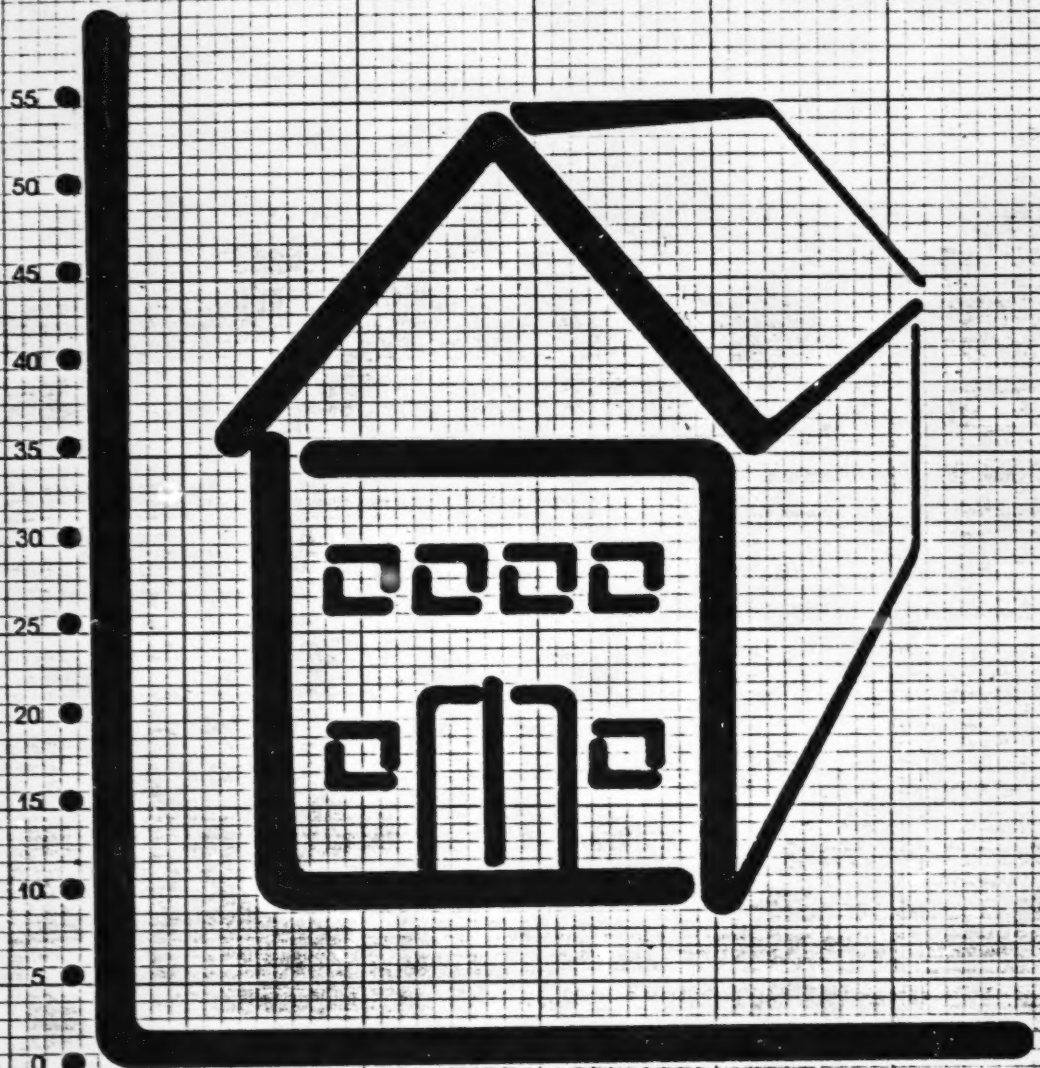
# THE PRINCIPALSHIP IN RURAL AMERICA

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# THE PRINCIPALSHIP IN RURAL AMERICA

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January 1982

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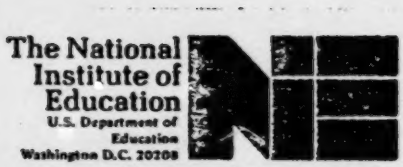


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ABSTRACT

A review of available literature relevant to the role of the rural principal divides the functions of rural principals into six categories (instructional/ curriculum leadership, personnel guidance, school/community relations, administrative responsibilities, evaluation, professional improvement) and provides suggestions on helpful material for each. Recent research on principals, sponsored by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the National Association of Elementary School Principals, the Rand Corporation, and the Carnegie Foundation, is briefly described, as are some recent efforts concentrating on rural schools. The section on instructional/curriculum leadership cites four perspectives on the topic, discusses the status quo and solutions, lists helpful books, and describes material for rural programs for students with special needs (gifted and talented, bilingual and non-English speaking, migrant and racial minority students; early childhood education; special education). Under personnel guidance, staff consideration (development, inservice training) and student consideration (career materials and discipline) are covered. The chapter on school/community relations deals with political skills, problems and dilemmas, community "ownership" of schools, and rapid community growth. A section on evaluation describes literature on evaluating student progress and the effectiveness of programs. Under administrative responsibilities, seen primarily as coordination, handbooks for principals in general and some works on topics of importance to rural principals (rapid growth, declining enrollments, time and resource management, service agencies) are described. A section on professional improvement covers organizations, journals, inservice education and other material of interest. A major conclusion is that material specifically intended for rural principals is very scarce. The six functions of rural principals are defined and their components listed, to assist researchers, writers and those designing training programs.

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## STUDYING THE RURAL PRINCIPAL

> At no time in the history of our country has there been so great a need as there is today in rural schools for leaders who have a clear and comprehensive understanding of the major problems which they must face and ultimately solve. (Lewis, 1937, Preface)

For an extended period of time researchers have suggested that the study of rural principals is a worthwhile endeavor. Few, however, have done such studies. This section will present recent studies which have some bearing on the rural school principal, including studies on the principalship, rural schools, and small schools.

### The Principalship

Four extensive studies regarding the principalship should be of value. The National Association of Secondary School Principals completed a 3-volume study (McCleary and Thomson, 1979; Byrne, Hines and McCleary, 1978; Gorton and McIntyre, 1978). The National Association of Elementary School Principals also completed a study (Pharis and Zakariya, 1979). Studies on the role of the principal were also completed for the National Institute of Education by the Rand Corporation (Thomas, 1978; Hill, Wuchitech and Williams, 1980). The most recent study, still in process, is being conducted for the Carnegie Foundation (Boyer, 1980).

### NASSP Study

The National Association of Secondary School Principals' most recent study is the finest work in the principalship literature to date. Lloyd McCleary, a professor of educational administration at the University of Utah, had the major responsibility for directing the gathering and reporting of data which, in many respects, is a gold mine of information about the secondary school principal.

The first volume (Byrne et al., 1978) provides a baseline of "normative-descriptive" information concerning the principal's views and working conditions. It also provides the data base for two other phases of the study: (1) an in-depth look at principals identified as effective; and (2) an examination of future forces and conditions that may affect the principal.

Data were gathered regarding the personal and professional characteristics of those currently employed as principals; the economic, political, social and educational conditions that affect the principal's actions; and the opinions and beliefs that principals have about selected issues, practices and tasks.

A random sample of 1,600 high school principals was asked to complete the survey. Data were analyzed by geographic region, type of community, size of school, type of school, and per-pupil expenditure. Rural principals, as a specific group, were not analyzed.

The results provide a picture of today's senior high school principalship. Comparisons to earlier studies done on the principalship by the Association enhance the interpretation of the results.

Among the findings in the first volume were that in 1977 there were fewer females (7%) in secondary principalships than there had been in 1965 (10%). In cities between 5,000 and 25,000, the female/male ratio was two female principals in every one hundred. In towns or "rural areas" of less than 5,000 persons, the figure was 1.5 female principals in every one hundred.

In 1977 there were fewer young principals and fewer old principals than in 1965. In cities from 5,000 to 25,000, one principal in four was between 20 and 39 years of age, and thirty-two percent were over 50. In communities of less than 5,000, thirty-two percent of the principals were between 20 and 39, forty-two percent were between 40 and 49, and twenty-six percent were over 50. In 1977 fewer than five of every one hundred principals identified themselves with any ethnic group other than white.

Concerning educational background, there was a considerable shift from 1965 to 1977. The percentage of principals having a social science undergraduate major more than doubled.

Principals were being appointed somewhat later in their careers, were staying in the principalship, and were staying in the same school somewhat longer than they had been 12 years before.

The career routes were much different than those 12 years earlier. The present career route is through an assistant principalship (54%) or athletic directorship (35%). Few of the recently appointed high school principals were former guidance counselors or elementary school principals.

The principal's concern about status and prestige has diminished. Few desire lateral job movement. Although more than fifty percent want to stay in their present positions, more than twice as many principals desired to be superintendents in 1977 (33%) as did in 1965 (14%). Most were happy with the career choice they had made.

Most principals read (in rank order): the NASSP Bulletin, Phi Delta Kappan, Education U.S.A., and Education Digest. Of particular importance to them was Secondary Schools in a Changing Society: This We Believe, written by the NASSP task force.

Other sections in the first volume define job tasks and problems; school, program and personnel factors; educational purposes and practices; parent and community relationships; and the high school principal and the future.

The second volume of the NASSP study, titled The Senior High School Principalship (Gorton and McIntyre, 1978), presents characteristics of the effective principal. This volume outlines the design of the study; personal, professional and school characteristics; task areas; and nature of the job. Ways to cause change and solve problems are presented. In the final section the effective principal is described.

The final volume (McCleary and Thomson, 1979) is a summary report of the NASSP study, describing findings from the national survey, findings from the study of effective principals, and information about private and religious school principals. The study of future forces and conditions that will affect the principal and the expectation of what the future principal will be like are also presented.

## NAESP Study

The National Association of Elementary School Principals conducted a study entitled The Elementary School Principalship in 1978: A Research Study (Pharis and Zakariya, 1979).

The survey is the fifth of its kind, with similar research having been conducted in 1928, 1948, 1958, and 1968. The longitudinal nature of the report clearly helps one put the principalship into perspective and emphasizes how that position has changed over time. Major sections of the report are: the personal characteristics of the principal; experiences and professional activities of elementary principals; the salary and benefits of elementary principals; the principal and the school; the role of the principal within the school system; the principal and collective negotiations; problems and opinions of the principal; and the elementary principal and the future.

## Rand Study

The Rand Corporation recently completed a study on alternatives in American education. The second volume of the study is The Role of the Principal (Thomas, 1978).

The study focuses on the role of school principals in managing diverse educational programs. Its purpose is to provide information for school districts which are considering alternatives to the status quo. Three main issues are addressed: (1) how innovative principals are selected; (2) the leadership styles of principals; and (3) dealing with conflict.

## Carnegie Foundation Study

A series of studies presently on-going under the proposal titled Excellence in Education (Boyer, 1980) should have major impact on rural schools.

The Carnegie Foundation is conducting a series of studies on the high school. The focus of the work is on the curriculum, the teachers, and the schools themselves. A panel to provide national visibility for the project has been named. In the future we can expect a national action program to be launched, with excellence-in-education grants being awarded to pilot schools which will clarify goals, strengthen curricula, and provide teacher education. A school/college collaborative plan can be expected.

## Small Schools

Size has been used as a variable in many research reports relating to education. When one reviews the literature, studies that discuss school size are abundant. The size variable has also been used extensively in reporting research concerning principals. The author has directed at least eight studies and others, such as work by Moore (1969), Russell (1976), and Lilley (1975) are available.

One high-quality work relating to small schools (Schneider, 1980) examines some of the characteristics of small schools, such as enrollment, size, geographical location and organizational structure. The monograph provides an analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of the identified characteristics. Earlier, Edington (1976) also provided a guide to the characteristics of small rural schools. The strengths and weaknesses of the above schools and promising educational practices are presented. Among those practices were improved structure, use of media and technology in-service programs for school personnel, community involvement, and changing the curriculum to meet the needs of society.

A study conducted by Cusick and Peters (1978) described and conceptualized the view that small town secondary principals have of their role. Using in-depth interviews of 30 Michigan principals, the authors concluded that there are two major norms which constitute the principal's role in small towns: (1) the principal should embody the ethnic of a totally responsible public servant, and (2) the principal should monitor the diverse elements of the school to ensure community acceptability and organizational stability.

## Rural Schools

Studies concentrating on rural schools, such as those by Greiner (1979), Fishburn (1978), Curran (1975), and Dreier (1975), are evident in the literature. Two other works of high quality are: (1) a report on the regional rural round tables titled Rural Education Initiative (Jacobsmeyer, 1980), and (2) writings by Paul Nachtigal, completed during work on a rural education project for the Education Commission of the States (Nachtigal, 1979 no date).

## Rural Education Initiative Report

In response to pressures from groups and individuals concerned with the condition of rural education, various governmental agencies collaborated in sponsoring a rural conversations seminar in Maryland in 1979. The purpose of the seminar was to develop recommendations for new guidelines and policies, or modifications of existing ones, for agencies interested in delivering educational services to rural children and adults.

Practitioners and experts in rural education and sociology were commissioned to develop issue papers that reviewed the literature, research, and educational methodology, and to provide recommendations. The 21 issue papers were used as a basis for discussion at the conference. A total of 28 recommendations emerged from the interaction.

The recommendations were then validated through a series of rural constituent conferences. Rural Education Initiative (Jacobsmeyer, 1980) is a report of that validation process and its results Also included are the 28 recommendations developed at the original seminar.

## Improving Rural Schools Report

The documents by Paul Nachtigal (1979, no date) summarize the findings of a 2-year study sponsored by the National Institute of Education's Program on School Capacity for Problem Solving. Included in the reports are a review of education in rural America today, descriptions of rural school reform efforts and current strategies used in rural education, and a discussion of specific strategies that make a difference.

Nachtigal reviews the classic document, The People Left Behind (Breathitt, 1967), which was updated by Fratoe (1978). He explores the differences in rural America, using as examples rural children from Pickins, Mississippi, and youngsters from the freshly painted farmsteads of the Midwest.

His discussion of the rural school reform efforts addresses the themes: rural schooling itself is the problem; the "one best system" philosophy; the "small is beautiful" belief; and the concept that all problems of education are generic.

Under the heading "A Montage of Current Strategies," as Nachtigal presents a number of existing or recently completed efforts to improve rural schools in America. Included in this effort are descriptions of 14 programs under five broad categories: (1) education would be improved if teachers were better prepared, (2) education would be improved if the process of schooling were changed, (3) education would be improved if communities were empowered to help shape the process of schooling, (4) rural education would be improved if problems were locally defined and addressed by strategies congruent with local structures; and (5) rural education would be improved if school/community ties were not only maintained but strengthened.

Design and funding of the strategies came from diverse sources. Five of the strategies were designed and heavily funded at the federal level, two were designed at the state level with joint federal/state funding, one was designed and funded by the Ford Foundation, and six had their origin with local communities. Titles of the 14 projects read like a script from "Saturday Night Live".

Nachtigal's interpretations of the montage are exceptional. The taxonomy should be helpful to those researching the rural principal. It addresses community type, values, socio-economic factors, political structure/loss of control, and priorities for schools.

## CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

> The organization of curriculum materials in the modern school is different from that in the traditional school. The curriculum is built upon the nature and needs of children. (Wooford, 1938)

### Introduction

In a recent article (Houts, Koerner and Krajewski, 1979), the director of publications for the National Association of Elementary School Principals, the Director of Publications for the National Association of Secondary School Principals, and a professor discussed what principals do in the area of instructional leadership. The results were revealing. The authors seemed to view instructional leadership from four perspectives: (1) posturing; (2) constraints/problems; (3) identifying; and (4) analyzing.

### Posturing

Under posturing, they felt the principal could be seen as a manager, as an educational leader, or as a manager of instruction. They felt that the elementary principal was more often the educational leader for curriculum, with the secondary principal being the manager. Further, some principals were so comfortable doing managerial work that they chose not to be instructional leaders. The final statement under posturing was that the day of the school generalist is gone and that specialization has arrived in the schools.

### Constraints/Problems

In presenting the problems and constraints that principals deal with, the authors identified the following: declining enrollment and staff reduction; paper work; community relations; parental complaints; teacher complaints; association demands; all sorts of education bandwagons; the nitty-gritty everyday housekeeping chores; adequate preparation; and the almost total lack of inservice support.

Additional constraints were: the pressures of activities that carry through late evening at least four days each week; attendance at school board meetings; PTA meetings; booster club meetings; ball

games; church meetings; civic duties; and new government regulations such as the recent immunization requirements.

## Identification and Analysis

When identifying instructional leadership, the authors felt the principal needed to: insure that the needs of all students were met; help teachers design and effect meaningful courses; recognize good teaching and make suggestions to correct teaching deficiencies; talk with teachers about student problems and find solutions to those problems; insure that teachers and pupils match learning and teaching style; and continue to maintain high quality dialogue with the teachers about good instruction.

To possess and exhibit on a regular basis the skills listed above is, according to the authors, instructional/curriculum leadership. Frankly, rural principals can't do it all! The issue of instructional/curriculum leadership for the rural principal is a trade-off and thus creates a dilemma: a problem that is usually without satisfactory solution.

The fact is, instructional/curriculum leadership in the rural school cannot be a microversion of that found in urban and suburban settings. Leadership for instruction/curriculum improvement is a desirable role (Ellett, 1976a, 1976b), but the role is not being fulfilled to the satisfaction of rural school principals (Krajewski, 1977; Purkerson, 1977).

## Status Quo

In many ways principals of rural schools encounter problems different from their counterparts in non-rural schools. Usually rural principals have fewer support services to assist them in the administration of their school environments. Further, rural principals are often on their own when they attempt to provide services for disadvantaged pupils, guidance services, or programs for unique students such as the visually impaired. Besides a lack of support services, rural principals often find that patrons resist curriculum innovations and new teaching techniques. Thus it comes as no surprise that principals are frustrated when they try to placate generally conservative school boards, who often discourage the purchase of professional assistance by those principals attempting to foster growth, development, and change. The problem of inadequate personnel and fiscal support usually leads to a feeling that maintaining the status quo is the most rewarding answer for rural school principals (Stern, 1979). A survey by Stern indicates that principals perceive their greatest role frustration to be instuction-related.

## Solutions

Since the rural school principal is often under pressure when instruction/curriculum leadership is considered, the question, "What can be done?" needs to be answered.

A resounding silence is again evident when it comes to specifics for rural school principals. A few works are somewhat helpful. Wilson (1970) outlined some educational innovations in rural America, but the document does not address instructional leadership directly. Loustaunau (1975) provided a guide on how small rural schools can have adequate curricula; although the guide is directed towards parents, it does have some value for principals.

Littrell (1980), writing on leadership in curriculum specifically for rural schools, presented six major problems faced in rural schools, along with their possible solutions. His writings are supported by articles in the NASSP Bulletin of October 1980. Guides were given for making changes without increasing the school budget (Sheerin, 1980); leisure activity days were considered (Goodwin, 1980); and additional pressures were examined (Pallo, 1980). The articles also provided short suggestions for making education relevant through career education (Brown, 1980), and expanding curriculum options in smaller secondary schools (Frazier, 1980).

## Helpful Books

Help can be found in books written generically for principals, although none are specifically for rural principals.

Staff Development/Organization Development (Dillon-Peterson, 1981) is an Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development Yearbook, wherein is described the "gestalt of school improvement."

Curriculum Development: A Guide to Practice (Wiles and Bondi, 1979) outlines the field of curriculum development, an analysis of the development process, leadership in curriculum planning, and curriculum procedures. Under the dimensions of a "school setting", school size, level and location are inferred.

The Principalship (Roe and Drake, 1980) primarily focuses on improving learning in the school. Suggestions are given for organizing to improve learning, staff development, organization and leadership. Nothing is given specifically for the rural principal.

The Second Handbook of Organization Development in Schools (Schumuck, Runkel, Arends, and Arends, 1977) outlines the organization development theory, including types of interventions. It also includes help in organization diagnosis, communications, goal setting, work conflicts, problem-solving, and decision-making.

Curriculum Handbook for School Executives (Ellena, 1973), although somewhat dated, it is still a clear, concise source of information about curriculum developments that must be considered and studied. The material is written by specialists in adult education, art education, business education, career education, and early childhood and elementary education. The book also contains work on education in English, language arts, foreign languages, health, home economics, industrial arts, mathematics, music, safety, science, social studies, and physical education. One chapter is concerned with planning and organizing for improved instruction.

The Elementary Principal's Handbook (Bean and Clemes, 1978) is a clear how-to book with one major section on instructional leadership.

A work by William A. Firestone, entitled Great Expectations for Small Schools (1980), is an ethnographic perception of American education. The book is one of a very few that rigorously treat the impact and limitations of a federal project on a rural small school.

The Professional Teacher's Handbook (Hoover, 1976) is a fantastic find for a rural school administrator. The guide is a how-to book with very specific suggestions. It is generic in nature, and is not written specifically for the rural educator. Many sections of the material will serve as short cuts for the busy administrator who is trying to provide high-quality instructional/curriculum leadership.

A book that may be used with the work by Hoover is Handbook for Effective Department Leadership (Sergiovanni, 1977). It is an effective tool for secondary school people performing the instructional leadership role.

Strategies for School Improvement (Neale, Bailey, and Ross, 1981) also provides a score of practical tools, tactics and strategies that can be used to develop school improvement programs. Although portions of the material are not valid for use in most rural schools, it is a very valuable source. Among the topics discussed are: declining growth rates and scarce resources; working with local school organizations; and the role of local, state, federal, and higher education personnel. The roles of students, citizens and parents are discussed at some length. Organizational development strategies and options are discussed, with extensive discussions on the models developed by Ronald G. Havelock, Richard A. Schmuck, John I. Goodland, and the Rand Corporation. The book also suggests tactics for school improvement with specific suggestions for administrators.

One way rural schools can take the lead in instructional/curriculum leadership is to make certain that the wheel is not reinvented. Often because knowledge about programs elsewhere is lacking, rural school administrators attempt to start from scratch when developing ideas for school improvement. The National Diffusion Network has presented a catalog of exemplary educational programs that have been extensively evaluated in varied settings. Under the title Educational Programs that Work (National Diffusion Network, 1980), the products and

processes are described, based on information gathered through an extensive validation process.

All of the programs were developed with public funds and addressed most subject areas and age groups. The most important aid for rural principals is that they can find programs which have worked with some success in environments much like their own. Usually one page in length, program listings include project title, description, targeted audience, evidence of effectiveness, implementation requirements, financial requirements, and services available. Also, a contact person for each project, along with address and telephone number, is provided in case one wishes to explore any program more extensively.

## Programs for Students with Special Needs

Administrators of special services for children in rural areas face the problem of providing programs that will meet the special needs of youth with a very limited budget and little assistance from other sources. Some material and activities specifically for rural educators have been found to be successful, although these are quite limited and somewhat difficult to find.

### Gifted and Talented

In response to the needs of rural gifted and talented youth, Henjum (1977) described the development of the West Central Minnesota Institute for Creative Study. Rural high school educators developed a summer enrichment program for gifted and talented youth, designed to bring together outstanding students, teachers, facilities, and materials in an attempt to expand and strengthen the overall curriculum for those gifted students. Evaluated as very successful by students and school personnel, this program may serve as a model for such activities in other areas.

### Early Childhood Students

The Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory commissioned a monograph (Lehnhoff, Talbert and La Russo, 1976) concerning promising practices in early childhood education in rural areas. The intent of the monograph was to suggest the types of early childhood education programs which may be implemented in rural areas at reasonable cost and which capitalize upon the rural area's unique characteristics. Twelve programs are presented in the booklet.

## Bilingual and Non-English Speaking Students

The educational needs of bilingual children once centered around the child of Mexican-American heritage. However, with the influx of immigrants from Asia, Cuba, and South American countries, needs have expanded. Often rural principals have students in their school who speak little English. These principals are faced with developing a program for non-English speaking students who represent a variety of languages. Since the purpose of education is to provide educational opportunities for all youth, it is imperative that tests for placement, English as a second language, bilingual education (not just English/Spanish), and support services for the youngster be provided.

## Migrant Students

Charles de la Garza (1979) presented a paper that should be valuable reading for the rural principal who has migrant children in the school. After giving a review of the relevant literature and research pertaining to the migrant population of the United States, he presented a series of conclusions and recommendations. Among them were: there is no uniform procedure for assessing learning needs and interest of pupils; there is no systematic procedure for evaluating pupil progress or measuring the impact of Title I services on a national basis; the Migrant Student Record Transfer System is not helping school personnel in a timely, useful and meaningful way; there is a lack of program uniformity among states; and there is a proliferation of agencies that provide services for the migrant.

## Racial Minority Students

The rural principal who has students from different races must be aware that curriculum materials used and developed about and for minorities have been dominated by urban influence. Yet the rural setting represents a natural learning environment that is often overlooked and should be exploited. Some rural schools have developed the capacity to cope with differences between students, and have not attempted to erase those differences (Chavis, 1979). The principal should be aware that attitudes about and expectations for students by the adults in the school are more compelling variables to success than class size, dollars expended, extracurricular programs, remediation or any number of other factors. It should be noted that some rural schools have achieved success, but that success is usually not apparent as the literature is reviewed.

## Special Education Services

Analysis of what could be done in special education has been presented by various authors (Smart, 1970; McCormick, 1976). Guidelines for research have been compiled (Jordan, 1966). Ways to identify, refer and treat the exceptional child in rural areas have been proposed (Williams, 1970).

There has been some concern for special education in rural education. Since the advent of Public Law 94-142, services to students who have special learning problems have placed high on the frustration list for rural school principals! A few resources are available to assist the rural principal, but again, most literature is for urban settings.

An outstanding resource to assist the rural principal in providing services to exceptional students is the Spring 1981 issue of The Rural Educator. The whole issue deals with special education in rural schools. The first article, by Cole and Ranken (1981), describes the basic differences between rural and urban special education and presents the critical needs in rural special education. The second article (Cole, Smith, and Ranken, 1981) presents some solutions, which are discussed under the headings: special education staff recruitment and development; providing services to exceptional students; legislation and funding for special education; and parent and community involvement. Other articles present some staff development models to serve all children, including the handicapped, and describe effective processes to complete such a goal for rural schools (Helge, 1981); present multiple methods for serving the rural handicapped (Latham, 1981); and describe a possible program for serving mildly handicapped students in rural schools (Vasa and Steckelberg, 1981).

Other works that may be of value to the rural school principal are Olson's suggestions (1978) to the resource or itinerant teacher who may become the first orientation and mobility instructor for blind students, and Zabel and Peterson's paper (1981) about rural programming for behaviorally disordered students.

## Summary

This section attempted to demonstrate that although instructional/curriculum leadership is identified as important for school principals, it is a major source of role frustration for rural principals. Little of value has been written specifically for the rural principal in this major undertaking.

> Another instinct that frequently causes disturbance in schools is the mating or sex instinct. When boys are afflicted with "calf love" and girls become "boy crazy," teachers often have trouble with school management. (Barns, 1924, p. 69)

## Introduction

Often the rural school principal acts as though the "consideration" area of administration is not a primary responsibility. Yet research has conclusively proven that school objectives are completed with better effectiveness and efficiency when the administration is attentive to the human side of enterprise. A skill developed and applied by the rural principal should be consideration for faculty and student personal needs.

## Staff Consideration

From the work of Herzburg (1966), as applied to rural settings (Walker, 1979), we have learned that school personnel may be viewed in four ways. The groupings are the "turn-ons," "turn-offs," "turn-overs," and "steady turn-ons."

The "turn-ons" are staff members who enjoy what they are doing. They find that the motivation factors (achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, and the work itself) are inherent in the school environment. The hygiene factors (salary, growth possibilities, interpersonal relations, status, technical supervision, policy and administration, working conditions, job security, and personal life) and/or external reasons (i.e. housing and family) for continuing to work at the rural school are weak. The "turn-ons" stay employed at the rural school because they want to. At the point when interpersonal relations, status, technical supervision and/or growth possibilities become dissatisfying, they leave. Increasingly in rural America, faculty and support staff have left schools not because they didn't enjoy their work, but because the hygiene factors forced the "turn-ons" to leave, even though motivational factors made staying desirable.

People who have weak motivational and hygienic factors are "turn-overs." They not only find little satisfaction with working

conditions, job security and/or other hygiene-external factors, but also they find the motivational factors are absent. A school principal should be happy when the "turn-overs" are gone. And gone they will be. There is nothing to hold them.

"Turn-offs" are those staff members employed in the rural schools who do not find achievement, recognition, responsibility or advancement at the work place to be satisfactory. They are not pleased with what they are doing at the school. The problem, for the rural school principal, is that for hygiene and/or external reasons they cannot leave. Thus they stay at the work place. It would be interesting to speculate what reasons keep these people where they are; a farm that needs to be paid for, a spouse who can't find employment elsewhere, a family who has lived in the community for generations, good hunting and fishing, and braces for the kids are a few that come to mind. "Turn-offs" are the core of poor education in rural communities.

Educators who find internal rewards working in rural schools and who enjoy the rural environment are "steady turn-ons." Motivation is strong, hygiene-external reasons are satisfactory. Satisfied staff members with long term commitments to the community are the backbone of high-quality rural schools.

Rural school principals need to apply the Herzberg Motivation Theory to the job setting. They need to insure that educators working under their supervision do not become "turn-offs," but instead evolve into "steady turn-ons."

## Castetter's Work

The application of Herzburg's work to staff guidance includes: selection, assignment, transfer, evaluation, promotion, grievances, supervision, morale, physical and mental health, stimulation, development, safety, and coordination. The Personnel Function in Educational Administration (Castetter, 1981) effectively addresses procedures for these areas better than any document reviewed. The purposes of Castetter's work are to help the reader understand personnel functions; comprehend how people respond to their work; and to present adequate information so that the effective administration of staff can take place.

Castetter's book is divided into six major headings, with numerous processes described under each. The headings are: (1) placing the personnel function in perspective; (2) planning and organizing considerations; (3) planning, recruitment, selection, and induction; (4) appraising; (5) development, compensation, and collective negotiations; and (6) security, continuity, and the processing of information. The book is written for relatively large urban/suburban school environments, so discretion is necessary as concepts are applied to rural schools.

A companion book to Castetter's is Staff Development/Organization Development (Dillon-Peterson, 1981). The brief, highly praised yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development is valued for its content and readability. For a more in-depth handbook for effective instructional supervision, one may wish to read Neagley and Evans (1980).

## Development and Inservice Training Materials

In reviewing material specifically written for the rural school principal, it became clear that the literature is inconsistent in both availability and quality. The major portion of available literature addresses development and inservice training.

Halstead (1980) presents a process for principals that will help in the development of professional growth programs for personnel in small schools. His concern is that principals might not spend the necessary time to enhance a school's educational program through personnel development. In order to initiate such a program, he suggests five phases: preplanning, orientation, needs assessment, program, and evaluation. Those same phases are found throughout management/administration literature. Halstead's work is unique in that he provides suggestions for programs that will better the rural staff. It also eliminates the "paper tigers" used by principals who find their consideration skills lacking.

Another work (Bailey, 1980) presents a series of guidance principles that rural educators must develop if they are to have quality instructional improvement programs. Bailey's material is primarily directed toward teachers, but with some modification it can be applied to other rural school staff members.

A study that should be of value for rural communities was conducted by the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development (Martin, 1977). It reports how professional growth needs of teachers were assessed, planning teams established, and cooperative planning implemented. Suggestions for programs appropriate for town-wide and regional presentations are given. This study is supported by a Rand Corporation report on "The Role of School Administrators in Staff Development" (King, 1980), and the article "The Small School: How It Can Be Improved" (Brimm and Hanson, 1980).

Hegtvedt (1979), Yarger and Yarger (1979), Costa (1979), Muse and Stonehocker (1979), and Reavis and McHaffie (1980) have also written to help those planning or developing inservice programs in rural or small school settings.

In working with faculty, the positive approach has been found to be best. Dunne (1981) presents five strengths that are characteristically rural: (1) a lack of distinction regarding what belongs to the community and what belongs to the school; (2) a

generalization of learners without strict age/grade expectations; (3) supportive ties between the school and family; (4) cooperation among school-aged youth; and (5) a school setting built on rural independence and self-reliance.

## Student Consideration

Consideration of students, over the years, has been a major strength of rural schools. Perhaps that is the reason that little specific literature addresses itself to developing desirable student behavior in the rural setting.

Although discipline has always ranked high on a principal's responsiblity list, the literature for rural schools pertains mostly to the traditionally defined guidance and counseling functions. Literature concerning career guidance, in particular, seems to be common.

## Career Materials

Career guidance, counseling, placement, and follow-through programs for rural schools are part of a series of materials contained in sixteen volumes that make up the Rural America Series (Stein, Axelrod and Drier, 1977). The materials suggest practices by which rural schools can meet local community needs and realize their potential for career program delivery. Among the contents of the books are: guides to show schools how to identify needs in the local community; guidelines for identifying talent and information to meet those needs; indications of the levels at which the community can become involved in helping the rural student; suggestions for strategies to help provide staff inservice; and guidelines for upgrading the image of the program.

Two other documents provide suggestions the principal may wish to use in evaluating the guidance and counseling services of the school (Muro, 1970; Spaziani, Reiger, Jones and Moore, 1973).

A document that could assist in the area of rural career guidance is an ERIC/CRESS publication by the same name (Edington and Conley, 1978). A chapter of the document presents information regarding the administrator's role in the change process and the factors affecting educational change. Other chapters are directed more specifically to the implementation of career education for individual students.

Two other possibilities in the area of student guidance are: One Year Out: Reports of Rural High School Graduates (Abt Associates 1977) and "A Comprehensive Job Placement Program for Secondary, Non-Urban High Schools" (Montgomery, 1974). The first is a longitudinal research-related report. The latter document is a paper presented to the American Personnel and Guidance Association.

Answers to questions on rural career guidance have been presented in an ERIC document (Drier and Edington, 1980). They use the format of paraphrasing sample requests for information and then providing answers to the questions. It is easy reading and very informative.

## Discipline

Discipline is a major concern in all schools. In the rural school the problem is usually not as severe as it is in some other environments. Jones and Jones (1981) present a specific book on positive discipline. For those needing help in that area it should prove of value. In addition, most texts on the principalship present a chapter or more on the topic.

One such text (Wood, Nicholson, and Findley, 1979) presents discipline as it relates to school board policy, school rules and regulations. The authors also present corrective measures, student's right to due process, and tort liability. Suggestions for dealing with student disruption and a proposal for developing an effective discipline program are also presented.

Almost all texts written after 1978 on the school principalship contain similar information. None are specific to discipline in rural areas.

## Conclusion

In developing high-quality programs based on strengths, Pinsent (1980) presented five areas of strength that are apparent in rural schools. All five were person-related: (1) the administration can have time to care; (2) the teacher has an opportunity to become a "turn-on;" (3) the student can not only acquire knowledge, but also can take the occasions afforded to get involved, to be a part of the school, and in the process develop greater confidence and self-esteem; (4) the community cares; and (5) the opportunity for high-quality guidance is present because the people care. With the principal serving as climate leader, these strengths can serve rural America well.

## SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

> Communities everywhere are making "surveys": we are taking account of what we have in the way of developed and undeveloped resources, both physical and moral, in order that we may know what we may count upon for community development, community pride, and that finer and wider community life which must come, if it comes at all, out of the still unknown resources of our communities. (Hart, 1914)

### Introduction

For most community members who live in rural America, the schools serve as the hub of their lives. The public worth is made better or worse by the degree of excellence maintained in their schools.

Principals are responsible to the community at large in many ways. Among these are: (1) interpreting the school programs to the community; (2) determining community expectations of the school; (3) communicating with parents through the media and in group conferences; (4) having parents visit the school; (5) working with parent associations and related groups; (6) interacting with school critics; (7) planning and coordinating the visits of school people to homes of students; (8) initiating special publicity campaigns; (9) supporting student publications; (10) appraising school-community relations; (11) working with industry and community image groups; and (12) determining the community power structure. (Wilson and Stansberry, 1976)

### NASSP Survey

A recent study was conducted by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (Byrne, et al., 1978), with one major portion of the survey providing information about school/community relations. A survey by the Elementary School Principals Association, taken at about the same time period, did not contain a specific section about such relations.

Forty-eight percent of the principals responding to the NASSP survey came from areas with a population of less than 25,000 people. The results, although not specific to rural America, are the nearest thing available to direct information concerning principals' feelings about school-community relations.

The researchers found that the vast majority of secondary school principals report that apathetic or uncaring parents are the major roadblock to the successful administration of schools. Such apathy is the major concern in the school-community arena. This is dramatically emphasized by the realization that in 1960, sixty-four percent of the homes had immediate contact with schools. In 1978, it was thirty-seven percent (McCleary and Hines, un-published).

When asked about the areas in which parents/citizens were involved, principals indicated two major classifications: in a planning-advisory capacity and in the regular operation of the school.

The "planning-advisory" areas of community involvement were (in order of involvement): student activities, the setting of objectives and priorities for the school, finance and fund raising, program changes, student behavior, and program evaluation. Involvement in the student activities area was reported more often than all other areas combined.

The "operation of the school" area of community involvement (again reported by order of involvement) included: resource persons to programs and activities, operators of concessions for the benefit of the school, sponsors or advisors of student groups, supervisors of ticket sellers for student activities, and volunteer tutors.

When principals were asked about the external constraints they could expect in fulfilling their job responsibilities, generally the answer was that anticipated constraints would come from their local community and in-school sources rather than more external sources such as state government.

In summarizing their report, the authors reiterated that the results of the survey indicated a sense of cautious optimism on the part of principals, that increasing willingness of parents and students to participate in school activities may be forthcoming.

The NASSP survey is a valuable start if one is studying rural principals. The results must be read with caution since the population of respondents was not limited to rural principals and none of the respondents were elementary principals.

McCleary and others working with the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) and the Rockefeller Family Fund, held five follow-up conferences with principals who were identified as successful in the area of school-community relations. The perceptions of the principals will be reported in an unpublished manuscript edited by McCleary. In the manuscript McCleary and Hines (unpublished) report that substantial literature deals with citizen involvement in educational affairs, yet little literature attends to involvement at the school level.

Community involvement is defined as the total network of linkages which exist between the school and the community it serves. Included

in this network are the students who represent the largest set of communication channels.

The authors found that a transition from one-way to two-way message flows was becoming evident in the schools. Channels of communications that were built primarily to inform parents and citizens of school policies, and problems, or to generate positive school images were being complemented by programs where the schools were listening to the concerns of the community.

McCleary and Hines further found that principals participated frequently in five types of planned community involvement programs: (1) councils, organizations, and committees that were on-going; (2) school activities; (3) organized communications such as bulletins, newsletters, surveys, home visits, etc.; (4) speeches given to groups such as service clubs and churches; and (5) "drives" and projects. They further found that the successful principals consciously attempted to be visible and to seek informal ways for meaningful person-to-person contacts.

## Political Skills

Principals are political. Successful principals are knowledgeable about the political implications and consequences of citizen involvement. Such awareness is addressed in five specific ways by Husen (unpublished): (1) the level of vulnerability; (2) strategies for dealing with power figures; (3) pressure groups; (4) the authority of the principal; and (5) understanding the community.

Cusick and Peters (1978), writing about the role of the principal in small towns, support the concept that political skills are necessary, and further conclude that there are two major norms that constitute the principal's role in these towns. First, the principal should embody the ethic of a totally responsible public servant. Second, the principal should ensure community acceptability and organizational stability through a careful monitoring device.

Monitoring may seem to be an easy task, but rural communities exhibit diverse personalities. The community acceptance that is so important for all principals is paramount for the rural principal. Some material, such as Teaching Mountain Children (Mielke, 1978) which is a guide to teaching Appalachian students, and Schooling in Isolated Communities (Gjelten, 1978), is available for the discerning administrator. However, materials are not plentiful, and those that are should be read analytically.

Guides and handbooks have been developed that could assist the rural principal become politically aware. How Well Do They Represent You? (1974), a guide explaining how school boards work, includes checklists that evaluate the success levels of boards and patrons. Also, four case studies are presented in a handbook that demonstrates

specific techniques which can be used to build citizen participation in community programs. The techniques are applicable to almost any community involvement endeavors (Druian, 1977). The handbook also presents a guide to locating the specific techniques discussed.

The third example of developed materials was Your Children--Sus Ninos. Your Schools--Sus Escuelas (1976), a guide prepared by Centennial School District R-1 in San Luis, Colorado to assist in community involvement of bilingual/bicultural parents. The material was prepared with the help of a federal grant.

With regard to federal participation, Richard Elmore (1980) offers suggestions as to what rural administrators and legislators can do to implement public policy. He addresses five areas: (1) just because it's legislated doesn't mean it can be implemented; (2) a clear difference exists between not complying with regulations and not being capable of complying; (3) it is essential that legislation be kept specific and to the bare minimum; (4) resources should be focused as closely as possible to the point of delivery; and (5) policy alternatives should start from the point of delivery and move to the policy makers, rather than from the top down. Other writers such as Hearn (1981) support this position.

Some local educators have become nationally involved. Superintendent Jess is an example of such a person. James Jess, founder of PURE (People United for Rural Education) and Superintendent at CAL (Community School in Latimer, Iowa), stated well the reason why the community should continue to be politically involved in the schools. "At the beginning I ask, 'Why have I, a 38-year-old superintendent, stayed eight years in the CAL community?' My number one reason is my six-year-old daughter... At CAL I know she'll be treated as an individual and will be taught by teachers who will respect and value her individuality. I also know she will go through a system whose community cares enough to stay involved in the schooling process of their children and mine. What more could any parent ask for his child?" (Jess, 1981)

A case study of the CAL School District, which has a student body of 305 in a K-12 system, is described in such a way that rural principals can see possibilities for political/school involvement in rural settings. (Skenes and Carlyle, 1979)

Writing on the where, what and how of community involvement, Peterson (unpublished) suggested that in regard to school/community involvement, the major critical incidents that affected the principal's job were, in order: student social adjustment and discipline; policy and procedures; coordination and recognition of community assistance; public information system; personal-community involvement; curriculum review; safety and security; and student activities. Political skills are needed in each area.

Licata (unpublished), writing about the principal and the norm of teacher autonomy, stated that successful principals tend to believe

that community involvement needs some cautions because a vocal few can dominate the process. The school may then not be able to take quick, decisive action because of the cumbersome process of extensive involvement. With respect to autonomy, his major position is that teachers generally give rhetorical support for citizen participation, but are usually threatened by it.

Licata, in examining strategies for better teacher participation, introduces two hypotheses that could well be tested in rural settings. They are that as teacher perceptions of the principal's support for their autonomy increase, the more defensive portions of the teacher autonomy norm decrease; and as the more defensive aspects of the teacher autonomy norm decrease, the teacher becomes receptive to community involvement and participation. Thus, for teachers to become political, he feels they must conceptualize support from their administrators.

## Problems and Dilemmas in School-Community Relations

With regard to school-community relationships, principals have problems and dilemmas. Dilemmas are not solvable in the usual sense; problems are. (Hines and McCleary, unpublished)

Among the dilemmas presented are: (1) school boards and administrators that are fearful of losing control; (2) others imposing control over the principal's time; (3) the need to be all things to all people; (4) difficulty in defining the principal's role in community involvement, since it is in such a state of flux; (5) a sense that wide disagreement exists about the meaning of community involvement; and (6) the teaching staff and its positions on community involvement.

Also pointed out are a number of myths concerning school-community relations and the principal. It was found that principals believed that they were the person in the middle, that responsiveness was a one-way street, that being involved with the community was being part of a shotgun wedding, and that community involvement was all a matter of public relations.

Finally, a checklist for principals who might wish to review the relations that they have with their communities is presented:

> Review board/central administration policies concerning community involvement.
>
> Annual school plan - prioritize improvement efforts with citizen input.
>
> Citizen, faculty, administration team to review community involvement needs; assess linkages to groups that may not be reached.

Parent programs geared to needs of differing student groups, including parenting courses.

Citizen volunteer program.

Senior citizen program.

Student Council projects on community involvement, especially those concerned with homes adjacent to the school, and student projects in the community.

Inform persons living near the school of school events.

Survey parents and citizens.

Informal breakfasts, rap sessions, tours of the school.

Community school for adult education and recreation.

Public relations program coordinated to community needs for information.

Review publication needs and publication effectiveness.

Survey staff memberships in churches, service clubs, etc.

Identify "opinion leaders" through nominations of faculty, citizens council members, etc.

Identify and make contact with youth-serving groups of the community.

Invite service clubs, ministerial groups, etc., to meet in the school.

Check on mandated councils for compliance, membership, functions.

Review policy regarding student performances and services to community groups.

Review with staff policy for disclosing information and for news releases.

Community Ownership

David Erlandson, a professor at Texas A&M University, reports (unpublished) that while professionals may continue to control public schools, the nature of what they control is significantly shifting. Passive parents and citizens may be the most troublesome condition in school-community relations as the family becomes less stable and less

goal-oriented. An increasing number of parents are willing to have the schools assume the task of parenting.

From Erlandson's work, we may surmise that the rural principal must insure that parents and others in the community continue to have a vital stake in the student product. Feelings of "ownership" of schools by community members should be as great as those of the principal!

One way to assist rural community members to school ownership is through utilizing community resources for student learning. Small rural schools are not equipped to provide, in school, the same services that more comprehensive schools do. Therefore, small rural schools need to identify and utilize the various human, natural, and social resources which comprise the community. A guide for using community resources for teachers in social studies in rural America was prepared by McCain and Nelson (1981). Another, more general in nature, was developed by the New Hampshire Supervisory School Project (Peters, 1976). A diverse strategy for incorporating out-of-school, community-oriented student activities into the total learning process was developed. The instructional strategy included field trips, guest speakers, an environmental education nature study site, and student placement at training sites.

## Rapid Growth

Feelings of school "ownership" may be more difficult to achieve during periods of rapid growth. Huling (1980) describes how school size affects student participation and alienation. He writes that students in small schools assume a greater number of positions of responsibility, are less alienated, and are involved in a greater number of activities than are students in larger schools.

Rapid growth may result in multiple impacts for the rural school and the community in which it is located. As change occurs, stress often develops in relationships between schools and the various community systems. Population growth and mobility, rapid economic development, family stress, community development, and working with other governmental agencies all affect the rural school with greater intensity. Morris and Morris (1981) have presented a guide for meeting educational needs as rural communities confront rapid growth.

The notion that big is not better was recently expressed in Missoula, Montana, where voters rejected a plan to build a huge, university-like high school complex. In the papers, at church socials, and throughout neighborhood saloons, community members wondered aloud whether bigger was better. They felt the small school would relate better to the community it touched, and thus they defeated a referendum for change (Barone, 1980). Often the choice to be large or small is not available to the boom towns of America. Growth and the changes that accompany it will tax the skills of the

most proficient rural principals as they encourage community "ownership" of the schools.

## EVALUATION

> Ever since schools have existed, teachers and school officers have sought to measure abilities and achievements...Can it be successfully done, or are the results of teaching so complex and intangible as to make it impossible to measure them? (Eells, Moeller and Swain, 1924, p. 335)

### Introduction

Evaluation, as expressed in this section of the monograph, is the process of ascertaining the value or amount of something by use of some standard of appraisal. It includes judgements in terms of internal evidence and external criteria.

The functions include: planning for evaluation; making a judgement regarding others and oneself; assessing instruction leadership techniques; spending time incorporating new and better techniques to evaluate staff; and utilizing results of evaluations. Besides the academic program, this section also includes evaluation of support services such as transportation and library facilities.

Evaluation may be viewed from three perspectives: people, product, and process. Although each affects the others, and therefore none can stand completely by itself, this section will concern itself with the product and process perspectives. Evaluation of persons is contained in the personnel guidance section.

Accomplishing an effective job of evaluation is probably the most awesome responsibility of a rural school principal. As the general public demands more and more "evidence" that programs are effective and cost-efficient, pressures for clear data increase. Programs that do not achieve their purposes may need to be improved or abandoned. As the costs for support services such as transportation and building usage expand, the basic concepts under which rural schools have operated will need reevaluation on a regular basis.

## Tuckman's Work

Tuckman (1979) presents descriptions of evaluation processes under the headings "formative," "summative" and "ex post facto." His work would be sound reading for the rural principal.

Formative evaluation is the approach wherein results are fed back into the system in order to improve its function and quality. Thus, the purpose of this evaluation is not to judge but to improve or enrich that which is evaluated. Such evaluations serve primarily as a basis for comparing program outcomes with program goals.

Summative evaluation is defined by Tuckman as demonstration and documentation. Alternative ways to achieve the goals of the organization are usually compared on a systematic basis in an effort to select the most effective alternative.

Ex post facto evaluation is defined as an attempt to forecast the future by reviewing past outcomes and determining whether the desired outcomes are being achieved.

All three processes are being used in rural shools.

Tuckman also provideds four steps needed for each of the three types of evaluation: (1) specifying outcomes and their measurement; (2) specifying and evaluating inputs and processes; (3) constructing the formative, summative and/or ex post facto evaluation design; and (4) carrying out the evaluation.

Tuckman provides help in defining the quality of programs, broad considerations of program outcomes, inputs and processes, and different kinds of evaluation designs. He has a section on measurement and determination which includes specifying and auditing outcomes, surveying inputs and processes from the classroom, and evaluating the quality of criterion-referenced tests. He provides help with evaluating instructional materials, activities, and organization; subject matter; teaching style; student factors; and the educational environment.

Also included in the book is a 5-chapter section on implementing evaluations, which includes operational guidelines for doing formative, summative, and ex post facto evaluations.

Tuckman's work is one of the best written and most informative books available on evaluation. The writing is technical, but it is as readable as any work published to date. For something more theoretical, one may wish to read Evaluation in Education: Current Applications (Popham, 1974), or School Evaluation: The Politics and Process (House, 1973). Both books are quickly becoming classics in the field.

## Works Written for the Principal

Wood, Nicholson, and Findley (1979) present suggestions for evaluating educational programs and student progress in a major section of their book. The work should prove of value.

Herman (1979) is more specific in his writing than Wood, et al. In the School Administrator's Accountability Manual, he presents a guide to successful accountability management techniques. He also includes guides to systems planning, needs assessment, goal identification, management information systems, and management by objectives (MBO). He is specific in the steps for establishing an MBO system and describes the strengths and weaknesses inherent in such a program. His work, while not as well written as Tuckman's, is less technical.

Educational Evaluation, written by James Popham (1975) for use with his graduate class in evaluation, is a valuable work. The author helps the reader place educational evaluation in perspective. He defines contemporary conceptions regarding evaluation and presents a substantial chapter on instructional objectives. Popham also presents alternatives to measurement as well as standard measurement guides. He provides guides to evaluation designs, sampling strategies and data analysis, and provides procedures for reporting evaluation results.

Another less technical work on evaluation is by Bradford, Doremus and Kreismer (1972), written for the novice. The work contrasts in sophistication with the work of Bishop (1976), which outlines plans and procedures for staff development and instructional improvement.

Dale Bolton (1973) has included a chapter entitled "Evaluating School Processes and Products: A Responsibility of School Principals." He states that principals must evaluate the procedures that are used by teachers within a school as well as the results of the procedures in terms of student learning. The chapter provides a brief description of several key concepts used in performing evaluation activities. A discussion of the interrelationships of the key features and their implications for information management is presented. Bolton asserts that: (1) evaluation is the cylindrical process of planning, (2) collecting information and using the information includes the examination of input, process, and outcome variables; (3) included in evaluation is the consideration of processes and products of several people; (4) evaluation is only one part of the total school organization; (5) the procedures used in evaluation are to determine direction, take action and acquire support, make intermediate decisions, provide support to the processes, monitor processes and make terminal decisions; (6) self-evaluation as well as evaluation by outsiders is a part of the process; and (7) the assessment of common objectives and processes, as well as objectives related to specific incidences, are part of evaluation.

The effectiveness of rural schools, like schools in the rest of the nation, is subject to increasing discussion and controversy. A book

titled School Effectiveness: A Reassessment of the Evidence (Madaus, Airasian, and Kellaghan, 1980) describes and evaluates the studies on school effectiveness. The book opens with a discussion of the basic issues that grew out of the controversy following federal interest in educational reform during the 1960s. It presents an overview of the extensive research and an analysis of the major strategies for investigating school effectiveness. School inputs, processes and resources are discussed. Results of school education, which are often measured by standardized tests of ability or achievement, are also presented. One of the most interesting concepts presented in the book is the problem of developing evaluative instruments which are sensitive both to schooling effects and to the environment of the school.

## Conclusion

From the sources presented, it is clear that little, if anything, of value has been written specifically on evaluation for the rural principal. It is therefore imperative that help be provided. Regional service centers, ERIC/CRESS, and/or state cooperating agencies should be of service.

Marjorie B. White (1975) emphasized that although rural schools need good teachers and administrators, the school boards still hold the purse. The legislators make the laws and the community increasingly expects to be a partner in insuring accountability on the home front. The problem is that although many are demanding, few are helping.

## ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITIES

> Under present conditions this occupation calls for an unusual degree of intelligence and skill. It demands the highest type of business management and industrial ability. (Betts and Hall, 1914 p. 512)

### Introduction

Administrative responsibilities will be treated here as the coordination of people and facilities toward the achievement of educational goals, using three broad methods: discerning and influencing goal and policy development; establishing and coordinating activities; and management of resources, money and materials.

Over the centuries many authors have addressed the topic of how to accomplish activities through and with other people. Usually as we review the activities of rural school principals, we find that they are engaged in work that can be classified under four headings: planning, organizing, controlling, and appraisal.

A commonly accepted definition of planning is the preparation of a course of action that will achieve an objective. Usually planning activity encompasses setting objectives, evaluating the climate, considering alternative courses of action, and selecting the proper course of action to follow.

Organizing is when the structure and conditions are established within which the work of the previously established plan can be completed most effectively and efficiently. Specific activities in organization are analysis, work definition, and matching assignments to the proper persons.

Controlling is the function which ensures that results will match the plan as closely as possible. It also entails monitoring and checking activities while they are on-going.

Since time is at a premium for principals in general, and especially for the rural principal, materials to help in these three broad areas are definitely needed. Very little is available specifically for rural principals.

## Books of Value

Six works that can be modified by those performing the role of rural school principal are: Handbook for School Administration (Griffin, 1975), Handbook of Educational Supervision (Marks, Stoops, King-Stoops, 1978), Handbook of Educational Administration: A Guide for the Practitioner (Stoops, Rafferty, and Johnson, 1975), The Professional Teacher's Handbook (Hoover, 1976), Handbook for Effective Department Leadership (Sergiovanni, 1977), and Elementary Principal's Handbook (Bean and Clemes, 1978).

### Sergiovanni's Handbook for Effective Department Leadership (1977)

The Handbook is written primarily for department chairpersons at the secondary school level. Each chapter is divided into two sections, one presenting the concepts underlying the topics under consideration, and the other giving examples of the practices.

Chapter 1 presents the concept of leadership. Educational leadership, instructional leadership, organizational leadership, supervisory leadership, and team leadership are the topical headings. Items such as competency checklists are presented.

The second chapter deals with role definition, the third with policy and procedure development, and the fourth with effective group work. The fifth chapter presents leadership behavior and effectiveness; the sixth deals with teacher satisfaction and motivation, and the seventh with concepts of facilitating change.

Chapter 8 should prove valuable to many rural principals. It presents management practices such as developing a calendar of deadlines, network scheduling and suggestions for linking expenditures to goals. Help in writing memos, letters, and reports is also contained in this chapter.

The ninth chapter presents suggestions on program leadership. The tenth presents goals, objectives, and educational program evaluation. Examples include a general statement of goals, textbook evaluation forms, and self-evaluation forms.

The eleventh chapter deals with supervision and evaluation of teachers. Guides are provided for target-setting and the preparation of written evaluation reports, along with many other beneficial suggestions.

The work by Sergiovanni is easily modified and should be a part of every rural school principal's reference materials.

Hoover's Professional Teacher's Handbook (1976)

Instructional processes are the tools of teaching. Without them, the teacher cannot master the art of teaching. The Handbook provides a basic framework from which a rural school principal can help teachers develop their own individual instructional skills.

A wide variety of illustrations are presented in the handbook, along with various instructional methods and techniques. Little attention has been given to instructional theory. The book is "hands on" in nature and, although theoretical underpinnings serve as a basis for the work, little is written about theory, in the interest of simplification and ease of reading.

The first section concerns itself with pre-instructional activities such as: gaining the concept, establishing instructional objectives, and planning for teaching. As illustrative of work contained in section one as well as the remaining chapters, the contents of the third chapter, "Planning for Teaching," are outlined:

Overview
The Yearly Plan
Lesson Planning
Values
Limitations and Problems
Illustrations

Each of the thirty chapters has a similar outline. The chapters are indeed helpful in working with teachers in rural settings.

Section 2 of the handbook presents conventional methods and techniques that focus upon the individual. In this section, motivational activities, methods of maintaining effective classroom control, providing for individual differences, questioning strategies, sociometric techniques, sociodrama methods, case methods, and developmental reading techniques are presented.

Section 3 presents conventional methods and techniques that focus on the group, and includes discussion methods, debate, processes of inquiry, small-group techniques, group processes, lecture methods, film and television analysis, review methods, drill or practice procedures, measuring instruments and devices, and evaluation and reporting procedures

Section 4 presents contemporary instructional developments and trends. Included are accountability in education, individualization of instruction, differentiated staffing and flexible scheduling, independent and semi-independent study, research methods, value-focusing activities, encouragement of creativity, and teaching the culturally diverse.

Griffin's Handbook for School Administration (1975)

The intent of this handbook is to furnish useable forms, suggest methods of procedure, and present examples of current practices and policies. The handbook, compiled in looseleaf form, is for school administrators in general, but is a useful source of information for the rural school principal.

An attempt has been made to arrange the material so that a minimum of time is expended to find forms or statements for specific problems or concerns that may arise during the day-to-day operation of a school. The forms presented are easily copied. Permission has been granted to use any form the administrator chooses, without copyright infringement problems. Thirteen major sections comprise this extensive work, with most of the pages being specific forms or policy/procedure statements.

The unit on principals presents: duties; procedure for fire drills; a guide for preparing fire drill exits; an example of a telephone listing of school personnel; class scheduling; a book rental system; a system for teacher evaluation; accident report forms; suggested reference information; a class schedule change request form; a long distance call record form; a chaperon guide for school-sponsored functions; student suspension procedures; notice of suspension; waiver of review of student suspension ; and a guide for student transfer within the district.

The other 12 major sections are presented in the same format as the one for the principal. The major sections are: Administration; Teacher Policies; Teacher Contracts; Pay Scales/Staff Travel; Bid Forms; Transportation; Buildings/School Lunch Programs; Non-Certified Contracts; Non-Certified Personnel; Attendance; Athletics/Health; and School Forms.

Handbook of Educational Administration, by Stoops et al (1975)

The emphasis is on school district operations, including more than 100 trends that promise to address those areas for which information will or may be needed. Thirty chapters cover educational responsibilities and relationships. The major sections of the book cover control and organization, finance and business administration, school plant, personnel administration and instruction. Sample forms and policy/procedure statements are contained throughout the volume.

The handbook is insufficient unless one needs the forms, sample guides, or policy/procedure materials. The authors' attempt to deal with theory is inadequate, but the remainder of the handbook should be of value to the rural principal.

Bean and Clemes' Elementary Principal's Handbook (1978)

This handbook is a practical and useful reference work for elementary school principals, and for those at the secondary school level who have modification skill. It is written for school administrators who desire help in keeping an effective educational climate while insuring that the integrity of the school is protected.

Practical procedures for dealing with large numbers of people-related issues are presented. The broad range of step-by-step procedures should help the rural educator find solutions to problems.

Among the major sections are: how to evaluate the teacher; the principal and the climate of the school; planning; conflict resolution; developing self-esteem; parent and community relations; stress management; effective communications; and role clarification.

Marks et al's Handbook of Educational Supervision (1978)

This practical how-to guidebook presents step-by-step procedures and techniques for improving the major aspects of supervisory performance. Along with other areas, the book covers: measuring teaching effectiveness; supervising classified personnel; improving instructional methods; and helping new teachers with classroom control problems. Each chapter includes lists of specifics to do and not to do, as well as guides for the school supervisor.

A treatment of significant research findings and theory is weak, but as a how-to-do-it book, it will serve the rural principal well who has the skill to modify it to his school.

## Special Assistance

The diversity of the rural environment is frequently not considered by researchers and writers. All of rural America is often considered to be the same. In reality, however, some parts of rural America are being confronted with rapid growth while in other areas out-migrations are being experienced.

Also, student backgrounds are not always the same. Rural populations of the Midwest are relatively affluent, while in other areas of the country, rural and poor are synonymous (Edington and Conrad, 1981). Consideration of such diversity is important when studying the administrative responsibilities of rural school principals.

## Rapid Growth

The trend of heavy out-migration from rural America dominated the years between 1940 and 1970. Recent research shows that in many areas that trend has reversed. People are returning in great numbers to some parts of rural America. Relatively little, however, is known regarding the effects this turnaround will have on rural education and rural communities. One fact is clear, however: that this turnaround will have an impact on the schools.

A comparison of two schools, using the case study method, was reported by Ross and Green (1979a). The two school districts, both in states west of the Mississippi, experienced rapid growth for different reasons and with different effects. The most evident result was that administrators in such environments must be pro-active. They must anticipate, develop contingency plans, establish policies, and insure clear, articulate communications. If they do not, chaos will abound. Another report by the same authors (1979b), which focuses on the impacts of rapid population turnaround on rural educational systems, makes it clear that planning skills are essential for administrators of school districts undergoing rapid growth.

Specific suggestions for meeting educational needs in rural communities confronted by rapid growth are presented by Morris and Morris (1981). The changing role of education in such communities, along with the need for planning and the planning process for the schools affected, is presented. The monograph also articulates the effective use of the consultative process and shows how the school can serve as a catalyst for such consultation. Likewise, interagency networking is presented, along with activities that will facilitate cooperation. Suggestions for building community participation in planning and decision-making for this particular type of school are also presented.

Morris and Morris provide the most valuable information available to assist in the administrative responsibilities of a school principal in a rapidly growing rural community.

## Declining Enrollments

At the other end of the continuum are those schools experiencing declining enrollments. Bussard and Green (1981) address the issue in a four-part document on Planning for Declining Enrollment in Single High School Districts. The first part outlines the nature of the problem including how high schools and elementary schools differ in options during times of decline. The second part of the document presents numerous possible strategies, including working within the school system, working in cooperation with other school districts, and using educational and community institutions outside of the school system.

The third part explores common concerns and issues, including the role of the school as a community institution; the faculty; use of space and facilities; scheduling; transportation; cooperative working arrangements with other agencies; finances; and the role of the states. The fourth part offers some concrete advice on the task of planning for a decline.

The report, supported by the National Institute of Education, is "must" reading for rural principals facing a declining enrollment.

## Time and Resource Management

Numerous materials have been written on time and resource management for educators. Representative of these are works by Weldy (1974) and Miller and Miller (1979).

For the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Weldy wrote a monograph on Time: A Resource for the School Administrator. Among the areas discussed are time analysis; establishing priorities; appointments; delegation; concentration; controlling "other imposed" time; fatigue; meeting management; memory aids; and skill improvement.

Miller and Miller's more recent work, Time and Resource Management for Small Schools, presents a collection of materials by practitioners on managing time and resources. Time management for administrators is included. Major areas that should be helpful to principals concern scheduling, team management, and personnel management.

## Service Agencies

The use of educational service agencies to assist the administrator of rural schools is a fairly common practice in some regions of the United States. It seems clear that state-funded educational service agencies in the state of Texas have influenced local education agency participation in programs and services. Evaluation shows that this participation has been of value to administrators (Stephens and Others, 1979b).

A comprehensive descriptive study of the service agencies in Texas, including the governance and organizational features, has also been presented by Robert E. Stephens and others (1979a). For rural principals, or those serving them, the work should be of value in exploring such an alternative.

Other types of services are less organized but still somewhat effective. Nelson (1979) reports on the first statewide small schools conference in Utah. It proved of value to the participants and could serve as a guide for others organizing such activities.

Another example of the kind of conference being developed to serve the rural principal is the rural and small school education conference held on an annual basis at Kansas State University. A report of the proceedings (Bailey and Scott, 1980) may assist other agencies who are planning to organize such conferences.

Organizations that serve the rural principal often have a short life span. The most consistent organization, over time, has been the ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools at New Mexico State University. People at the Clearinghouse have a long history of service to rural education and should be able to continue in that mission for the forseeable future.

## Conclusion

The rural school principal should be able to control, organize and plan, and to evaluate people and programs. There are no specific materials to help in these endeavors, so a presentation of six major works written in handbook form has been made. The handbooks, used with discerning skill, should be valuable resources for the rural principal. Other material, specific to the rural principal in unique settings, is also presented, with major population changes and time and resource management given the most consideration.

## PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT OF THE PRINCIPAL

> The rural school presents the most important problem in American education. (Hall, 1914, Preface)

### Introduction

For rural school principals, the pressure to improve professionally is not acute when compared to the demands on principals in other locations. In fact, those efforts made by rural school principals to upgrade their skills may be looked upon with some suspicion by their communities (Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 1980).

Information written specifically for the rural principal can be located only after painstaking search, and then the instructive resources will often be fragmented.

Parks and Sher (1979) have clearly described the difficulty in acquiring access to information on rural education. They point out that, although there were 15 million children, ages 5 through 17, who enrolled in non-metropolitan schools in 1975, little information was available about those children or their environment. They state that the available evidence, reported in their document and other work which they cite, clearly indicated that rural education is one example of a constituency suffering from governmental inattention. They point out further that rural education seems to be an area of "benign neglect," with little specific information available to help solve pressing problems.

This section presents organizations, journals, and training programs that are not university-based, as well as selected resources that may help the rural principal in self improvement.

### Organizations

Few organizations are available for rural educators alone. None are available for rural principals specifically. In fact, the National Association of Secondary School Principals (1904 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091); the National Association of Elementary School Principals (1801 N. Moore Street, Arlington, VA 22209); and the Association of Middle School Principals (G10 Aderbold Hall, U. of Georgia, Athens, GA 30602) provide only lip service to the rural administrator.

Edington (1980) listed national organizations that are primarily committed to rural education. He presented the organizations as follows: Rural Education Association (Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO 80521); PURE (People United for Rural Education) (PO Box 458, Latimer, Iowa 50452); National Rural Center (1828 L Street N.W., Suite 1000, Washington, D.C. 20036); Educational Resources Information Center Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools (Box 3AP, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, NM 88003); Small Schools Committee of the American Association of School Administrators (1801 N. Moore Street, Arlington, VA 22209); and Special Interest Group on Rural Education of the American Educational Research Association (Box 3AP, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, NM 88003). He lists the purposes and contact persons for each of the organizations.

Edington further identifies the 15 rural/small school centers located throughout the United States. These are usually service centers for the purposes of conducting research, disseminating information, and providing resources in educational settings. Usually the centers are part of a parent institution, often an institution of higher learning. The identified centers are located in Alabama, Colorado, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Minnesota, Montana, New Mexico, New York, North Dakota, South Dakota, Texas, and Utah. The address, telephone number and contact person for each center are listed.

State associations reported in the directory are: Schools for Quality Education (Rt. 4, Pratt, KS 67124); Oregon Small Schools Association (PO Box 3101, Salem, OR 97302); Association of Texas Community Schools (1011 San Jacinto Blvd., Suite 210, Austin, TX 78701); and the Utah Small Schools Association (Utah State Office of Education, 250 East 5th South, Salt Lake City, UT 84111).

Regional laboratories with a major emphasis on rural education are: Midwest Continent Regional Education Laboratory (1800 Pontiac, Denver, CO 80220); Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (710 SW Second Avenue, 500 Lindsay Bldg., Portland, OR 97204); Regional Exchange Project, Southwest Education Development Laboratory (211 East 7th Street, Austin, TX 78701); and Appalachia Laboratory (Box 1348, Charleston, WV 25325).

Also listed by Edington are people and organizations with membership in OCRE (Organizations Concerned About Rural Education) which meets monthly in Washington, D.C. He also gives names and addresses of persons who belong to the Rural Interest Group of the American Educational Research Association.

In response to mounting pressures, the Department of Education has now formulated a rural education initiative. Presently it is directed by Norman E. Hearn. The agency is intended to help rural educators. For assistance write Dr. Hearn at Department of Education, F.O.B.# 6 Room 2025, 400 Maryland Ave. S.W., Washington, D.C. 20202 (Phone 202-472-9462).

## Journals

There are no journals written exclusively for the rural school principal. Some journals do publish articles concerning the principal and a few do contain articles specifically related to rural education.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin (1904 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091) is one of the finest journals for practicing principals. From time to time the journal features rural education. The last such feature was in the October 1980 issue. As of 1981, the name of the journal has been changed to Principal.

The American Middle School Education Journal (G10 Aderhold Hall, University of Georgia, Athens, GA 30602) is published four times each year by the National Association of Middle School Administrators. Few articles are written specifically for the rural administrator. However, a number of articles may be of some value as they relate to administrating a middle school.

The Elementary School Principals Journal (1801 N. Moore Street, Arlington, VA 22209) contains articles for elementary principals in general.

Appalachia, the journal of the Appalachia Regional Commission (1666 Connecticut Avenue N.W., Washington, D.C. 20235), is for those interested in the Appalachian region and the economic development program of the Applachian Regional Commission.

Human Services in the Rural Environment is directed primarily to the social worker in rural settings. It is published by the Office of Continuant Social Work Education, 2012 Lake Avenue, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, TN 37916.

The journal Independent School is published by the National Association of Independent Schools (4 Liberty Square, Boston, MA 02109). Journal articles relate primarily to those working in non-public education.

Another journal that may have some value for rural principals is the Journal of Rural Sociology. As the title indicates, the journal deals primarily with sociology in rural environments. It is published at the University of Tennessee (325 Morgan Hall, Knoxville, TN 37916).

Two journals which may be obtained from the Department of Education at Colorado State University (Fort Collins, CO 80523) are The Small School Forum and The Rural Educator. Both journals are written for those concerned with rural or small schools. Although both journals are relatively new, they have found wide acceptance. The Rural Educator is the official journal of the Rural Education Association, and The Small School Forum is being published in the hope that rural and small school educators will receive recognition by sharing their expertise with others.

Other journals, such as Educational Leadership and Phi Delta Kappan, may be of value to administrators of rural schools. Such journals can be located easily in the Directory of Scholarly and Research Publishing Opportunities, available from Academic Media, Division of Computing and Software, 32 Lincoln Avenue, Orange, NJ 07050.

## Inservice Education

At the risk of repetition, it must be reported again that few specific inservice activities are available for rural principals. Beckner (1979) reports the results of research completed in the state of Texas, which he feels could probably be generalized to pertain to other rural settings.

The results of Beckner's work show that, with respect to inservice education, there was no significant difference between principals at the various levels of administration (high school, junior high school, elementary school), or those who differed as to school setting, major types of economic support in the community, or ethnic make-up of the student body. Principals seemed to prefer topical training in workshop settings taking less than six hours. Most principals were willing to travel up to 100 miles for such training.

Beckner indicates that, given a number of choices, principals seemed to prefer some type of training in the following areas: insuring legal and effective discipline; curriculum revision and/or organization; counseling services; teacher evaluation, accountability and dismissal; school organization functions such as class scheduling; and new courses for career and vocational education.

In a position paper, Costa (1979) discusses several modes of delivery for administrator development suitable to small rural school districts. He is particularly interested in the cooperative external degree plan that could be used by rural educators in sparsely populated environments. Although Costa does present alternatives, the best available work on inservice delivery systems was written by Ben M. Harris (1980). Harris cites considerable research regarding the best inservice systems. He does not specifically deal with the issue of inservice training for rural principals, but does provide a valuable basis for rural principals interested in receiving or giving inservice education. His work not only provides assistance in establishing proper inservice content, but also provides a framework of potential activities, with a discussion of strengths and weaknesses.

## Organization-Sponsored Inservice

Rural principals may wish to attend inservice activities that are not locally delivered. Such training sessions are sponsored by various organizations. Four organizations heavily involved in such training are: the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, the American Management Association, the American Association of School Administrators, and the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, through its National Curriculum Study Institutes (2254 North Washington Street, Alexandria, VA 22314) sponsors about 40 institutes each year. The cost for members is $130 for two days, with participants paying their own lodging, meals, and travel. Non-member costs are about $40 more. The workshops are generic in nature with none being specific to the rural setting.

The American Management Association, an organization primarily for private business and major public sector managers, sponsors about five hundred workshops each year. The cost of their inservice training is about $500 for four days, with participants paying their own lodging, meals, and travel expenses. The material is not specific to education and does not usually deal with rural settings. Copies of their workshops are available from: AMACOM Division, 135 West 50th Street, New York, NY 10020.

The American Association of School Administrators, through its National Academy of School Executives, offers a number of general programs for School administrators. Each year one or two of their workshops are specifically for the rural principal. A copy of upcoming Academy programs can be obtained by writing to the National Academy of School Executives, 1801 N. Moore Street, Arlington, VA 22209.

Generic institutes and conferences for specific audiences are presented by the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Twenty-four institutes were scheduled for 1982. Of seven conferences for identified audiences in 1982, a conference in Las Vegas, Nevada, in March specifically concerns the small school principalship. None are specifically for the rural principal. Registration for an NASSP Institute is about $165 for two days, with some meals included. Lodging and travel expenses are usually extra. A brochure containing all pertinent information regarding institutes and conferences may be obtained by writing the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1404 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091.

The National Association of Elementary School Principals sponsors about nine professional development institutes each year. The institutes are general in nature, with none specifically addressing rural or small school principals. The cost of each institute is $100 for members and $125 for non-members. A complete listing of institutes is available by writing NAESP, 1801 N. Moore Street, Arlington, VA 22209.

It is evident from the programs sponsored by the organizations listed above that a number of workshops/institutes are generic. It is also clear, after surveying the major associations concerned with the principalship, that only one institute, out of some 500, addresses the challenges of the small school principal, and none specifically address the rural principal.

An alternative to the national organization format is now being practiced throughout the United States School administrators have formed regional cooperatives for inservice education. These cooperatives are developed around issues identified by administrators in the region. Program assistance is often provided by universities, state departments of education, or organizations concerned with rural education. One such program is now operating in Central Kansas. Funding is provided by local school districts, with local district control (Mickler and Wilson, 1981).

Other avenues the rural pincipal may wish to explore include attending national, regional, state or area conventions and workshops. Three examples of such conferences are the Annual Meeting of United School Administrators of Kansas; the regional drive-in conferences sponsored by the American Association of School Administrators; and the State Principals Conference, jointly sponsored by the Utah Principals Association and Utah State University.

## Other Material of Interest

This section includes a summary of other resources and a few books that may be of value.

Wilson (1981) has compiled a listing of all articles listed under the word "principal" in Education Index from 1970 to the present. Also in his compilation are the relevant books listed in the 1981 edition of Books in Print. He used the descriptors: principal, elementary school administration, middle school administration, high school administration, school administration, educational supervision, and educational management to locate the books. The total compilation contains references to 600 articles and 125 books, and is available from the author for $1 (College of Education, Bluemont Building, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506).

Other compilations are available, for the cost of running the search, by writing the Educational Resources Information Centers (ERIC). The Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools (CRESS) (Box 3AP, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, NM 88003) will provide the compilation service or will direct the inquiry to the nearest location where the service can be provided. One advantage the ERIC Clearinghouse documents have over those compiled by Wilson is that the pool of journals compiled by ERIC through Current Index to Journals in Education is more extensive. Also, the ERIC system can locate fugitive documents through Resources in Education.

You and the Rural Connection: Answers to Your Questions on Rural Career Guidance (Drier and Edington, 1980), One Year Out: Reports of Rural High School Graduates (Abt Associates, 1977), and National Seminar on Rural Education: Conference Report (Wallace, 1979) are three documents available through ERIC/CRESS.

Another valuable source of reading material is the Phi Delta Kappan. If the "Kappan" is written for a specific audience, it is usually urban schools.

The Phi Delta Kappa fastbacks are great. Fastbacks are single-issue papers about 50 pages in length, some of which will be valuable to rural principals. One sample of the more than 150 fastbacks is Student Discipline and the Law (Connors, 1979). No fastbacks have been written especially for the rural principal.

The National School Public Relations Association has presented many valuable reports. Included in the listings are reports of the proceedings of almost all major national conventions in education. A listing of these reports and other special reports such as Differentiated Staffing in Schools (Stocker, 1970) are available by writing the National School Public Relations Association, 1201 16th Street N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. A weekly newsletter, Education U.S.A., is also published by the Association.

No major books written specifically for the rural principal were found. A rural principal would be well advised to consider books such as Handbook for Effective Department Leadership (Sergiovanni, 1977), Strategies for School Improvement (Neale, Bailey and Ross, 1981), Elementary Principal's Handbook (Bean and Clemes, 1978), Improving Staff Performance through Inservice Education (Harris, 1980), New Techniques for Effective School Administration (Hamilton, 1975), and Education in Rural America (Sher, 1977). Other books that may be of value specifically for the principal may be found by consulting Wilson's work (1981).

## CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND PERSONAL REFLECTIONS

> The truth is that too many people are either unused to or incapable of forming judgment with reference to public questions that are based upon facts. In matters of scientific research the fact is the one thing sought at all hazards. ...A group of men acting as the directors of a business concern will insist upon having all the facts as to markets, cost of production, and the like before they will even attempt to lay down a financial policy or outline a business campaign. Yet strange as it may seem, these same men dealing with matters of a social character, seem willing to rest their judgment upon rumor, guess work and even prejudice. (Lewis, 1918, p.11)

### Help for the Rural Principal

To write this monograph, a research review was done, using Resources in Education, Current Index to Journals in Education, University Microfilms International, and Education Index. The hope was that abundant material would be available to provide a good picture of rural school principals and what they do, or should do. However, the conclusions drawn from this search are that not only is the material for rural principals deficient, but on many topics there is nothing specific available in any form. The frustration at discovering such a dearth of information was disconcerting. It was almost as if a conscious effort had developed to thwart efforts which might help the rural principal. Clearly, titles such as The Neglected Americans, and Imaginary Gardens? Real Problems, are descriptive of the neglect that has afflicted the literature for the rural principalship.

Some things are common to management/administration whether a person is working for American Telephone and Telegraph or Randolph Public Schools. However, rationales such as "a manager is a manager" or "rural principals are not all the same, so you can't write for them" are only partially true. Generic writing can carry us only so far. There are generic school administration/management skills and there are generic principal skills. The rural principal should be using the available generic information. It is not difficult to see, however, that the rural principal has been bilked by the authors, organizations, and environments that should be serving rural schools! They have written to, and conducted inservice workshops for, the urban/suburban principal. In the process the rural principal has been lost. As shown below, the literature is insufficient, scant, deficient, inadequate, unsatisfactory, and wanting.

## Is There Any Help for the Rural Principal?

(a terse statement, by category, of available literature and training)

Generic for administrators/managers
Assessment: Copious

Generic for educational administrators/managers
Assessment: Abundant

Generic for principals
Assessment: Abundant

Generic for principals by level (i.e. elementary, middle, high school)
Assessment: Ample, with more for secondary than other areas

Specific for rural principals (as a group or by level)
Assessment: Scant, with a dearth of available material

Specific for rural principals in varied environments (i.e., isolated, "boom town")
Assessment: Wanting, with neglect apparent

Generic works are valuable. However we need high-quality work that is written specifically for the rural principal. While some work is being done for the rural principal, more specific research is needed to assist rural principals in their unique settings. Only some rural principals are working in small school environments. Only some rural principals are experiencing declining enrollments. Only some rural schools are located in the Midwest. The multiple and varied dimensions that affect rural principals must be addressed while general work for the rural principal is proceeding.

## A Place to Begin

Since the literature has been found wanting, solutions are in order. A guide that may assist the researcher, trainer, or writer seeking to serve the rural principal can be found in an effort begun earlier in this decade. The author and his research assistants did a complete analysis by paragraph of articles and books written on the principalship. The result was a presentation of the school principal's functions.

These functions were then used to evaluate expectations of varied populations concerning what principals "ought to be doing." Through the use of specialized observation techniques, further analysis was undertaken about what principals are actually doing. Finally, a few training programs were developed for some of the principal's functions (Wilson and Stansberry, 1976).

The work was generic to all principals. It was not completed specifically for rural principals, nor was it done for specific sub-populations of rural principals. Such work needs to be done. Here, the functions have been adapted to the rural principal and are presented in six classification areas, which are adaptations of the work by Wilson and Stansberry (1976). A more complete description of each category and function is contained in that work.

## The Functions of Rural School Principals

### I. Curriculum and Instructional Leadership

Definition: Curriculum is that set of stimuli that is planned or designed to occur within the total setting of the learner. Included in the definition are events such as music, sports, and drama as well as experience with academic and vocational subjects. Instructional leadership is the supervision and/or improvement of the curriculum through activities such as planning, organizing, directing, observing or evaluating.

Functions: Working with staff in curriculum and instruction; financing curriculum and instruction; planning facilities for curriculum and instruction; adapting facilities for curriculum and instruction; new teacher orientation; in-service education; planning for the use of curriculum materials; selecting learning resource techniques; developing articulation between schools; curriculum supervision; working with consultants in curriculum and instruction; evaluating curriculum consultant's services; defining school philosophy and objectives; citizenship training; handling controversial issues in curriculum and instruction; academic freedom; defining types of curriculum and instructional strategies; evaluating resource materials in curriculum and instruction; acting as a resource person; and participation as a classroom teacher.

II. Personnel Guidance

Definition: Guidance that is directed to assist individuals concerning personal habits, attitudes, and problem matters pertaining to schooling, courses, curricula, and school life.

Functions: Staff (teachers, secretaries, custodians, maintenance personnel, nurses, librarians, social workers, psychologists, paraprofessional personnel, and security personnel) selection; staff assignment; staff transfer; staff evaluation; staff promotion; staff dismissal; staff supervision grievances; morale; physical and mental health; stimulation of staff; staff coordination; staff communications; admission of pupils; student promotion, failure and retention; student grouping; drop-out prevention; providing for individual differences; providing for the exceptional youngster; pupil health services; pupil guidance services; standardized testing; pupil evaluation; pupil progress reporting; student transportation; safety; monitoring truancy and drug usage; co-curricular activities; and personnel conflict management.

III. School/Community Relations

Definition: Maintaining positive relationships between the school, its staff members, and the people of the community, particularly with respect to the manner in which the school staff and community members coordinate efforts in assisting pupils to derive optimum benefit from their educational experiences.

Functions: interpreting school programs; determining community expectations of the school; communicating with parents through the media and in conferences; coordinating parent visits to school; working with PTA and related groups; interaction with school critics; coordination of and/or making home visits; organizing publicity campaigns; overseeing student publications; appraisal of school/community relations; working with industry and organized community groups; and determining the community power structure.

IV. Administrative Responsibilities

Definition: The coordination of people and facilities toward the achievement of educational goals through three broad methods: (1) discerning and influencing goal and policy development; (2) establishing and coordinating activities; and (3) managing resources, money, and materials.

Functions: Implementing board policies; implementing state school laws; shaping system-wide policy; forming working relationships with central administration; maintaining school facilities; managing school equipment; evaluating service personnel (e.g. secretaries and custodians); conducting school business; managing school supplies; preparing budget and budget accounting; planning of yearly school

opening and closing and school calendar; facilities planning; scheduling classes and activities; anticipating work stoppage; altering length of school year and/or days; working with student hygiene; and completing reports.

V. Evaluation Responsibility

Definition: A judgment of the value of a particular performance, accomplishment or objective made according to a set of appropriate criteria.

Functions: Cooperative planning for evaluation; self evaluation; evaluating instructional leadership techniques; improving the process for evaluating teachers; selecting techniques for teacher evaluation; using results of teacher evaluations; using results of evaluations of the principal; evaluating transportation service; evaluating safety standards; evaluating the library program; evaluating educational travel; identifying needs; evaluating facilities; and evaluating processes used for supporting instruction, such as field trips.

VI. Professional Improvement

Definition: Keeping current on educational issues and processes.

Functions: Keeping abreast of current research; attending state, local and national conventions and inservice meetings; professional reading; developing professional resource materials; doing action research; preparing for presentations; obtaining membership in professional and community groups; and interacting with colleagues.

It is hoped that those studying the rural school principal will use the functions listed above to develop training programs, provide research, and develop quality material for the rural school principal. It is time that the past neglect of rural school principals was rectified.

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